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Electrodeposition of Nickel Hydroxide Nanoparticles on Carbon Nanotube Electrodes: Correlation of Particle Crystallography with Electrocatalytic Properties

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Electrocatalysis, Methanol Oxidation, Ethanol Oxidation

ABSTRACT

The use of two different electrodeposition approaches to form nickel hydroxide, Ni(OH)_2 , nanoparticles (NPs) of different crystallographic orientations on single-walled carbon nanotubes is demonstrated via: (i) the electrochemical generation of OH^- ($\sim \text{mM}$), in the presence of Ni^{2+} , resulting in the formation of disordered α -phase Ni(OH)_2 NPs by precipitation (direct approach); (ii) the electrodeposition of Ni NPs that are converted to Ni(OH)_2 through potential cycling in alkaline media to form the more thermodynamically favourable, ordered β -phase Ni(OH)_2 NPs (indirect approach). NPs produced by the direct approach exhibit remarkable electrocatalytic activity towards both methanol and ethanol oxidation, exhibiting excellent specific activities (SA) of $\sim 2.8 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$ for 0.5 M methanol and $\sim 3.7 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$ for 0.5 M ethanol. In contrast, NPs produced by the indirect approach shows SA values about an order of magnitude lower. This study demonstrates the capability of electrochemistry for the tailored synthesis of Ni(OH)_2 nanostructures for electrocatalytic applications, and a powerful, but simple, combinatorial approach for quick activity screening.

INTRODUCTION

The electrocatalytic oxidation of small organic molecules has attracted considerable interest for applications in different areas of electrochemical science, such as fuel cells¹ and electrochemical-based sensors.² Among these the electrochemical oxidation of methanol (MeOH) and ethanol (EtOH) have been active areas of research, especially to aid the development (and understanding) of direct alcohol-based fuel cells.³ The most widely used catalysts for the alcohol oxidation reaction (AOR) are rather expensive and scarce metals such as platinum⁴ and ruthenium.⁵ There is thus a need to find alternative, cheaper materials, which perform as well, if not better, in terms of electrocatalytic activity.

Nickel hydroxide ($\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$) is one such material that exhibits high electrochemical activity and cost effectiveness, and so this electrode has been the focus of considerable attention.⁶⁻¹⁰ A variety of different synthetic routes are available for the production of a wide range of different $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ morphologies.^{7, 11} The electrocatalytic activity of $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ results from the oxidized form, $\text{Ni}(\text{OOH})$, owing to unpaired d electrons or empty d-orbitals¹²⁻¹⁴ which are available to bond with adsorbed species and intermediates.

It is well known that the electrocatalytic activity of materials can be increased significantly when nanostructures, such as nanoparticles (NPs), are employed.¹⁵⁻¹⁶ Among electrocatalytic supports, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have been shown to be extremely attractive for metal NPs¹⁷⁻¹⁸ and metal oxides¹⁹ due to their exceptional intrinsic properties, such as chemical stability²⁰ and nanoscale dimensions.²¹ Moreover, compared to the more traditional support materials, such as carbon black, CNTs have been shown to offer an increased porosity and enhancement of the kinetic rate constant for the electrocatalytic process of interest (for similar metal NP loadings and carbon surface areas).²²⁻²⁴ Several approaches have been adopted for depositing metal NPs onto

nanotube electrodes, such as sol gel,²⁵ sonochemistry,²⁶ and hydrothermal methods.²⁷ However, these methods can be time-consuming and challenging to use. In contrast, electrochemistry is both rapid and facile, and a good deal of control over the nucleation and growth of metal NPs can be achieved by varying the deposition potential and time.²⁸⁻²⁹

The fabrication of Ni(OH)₂/CNT composite materials has often involved dispersing CNTs in solution followed by chemical precipitation of Ni(OH)₂.³⁰⁻³¹ The typical methods for CNT growth are arc discharge,³² laser ablation³³ and catalyzed chemical vapor deposition (cCVD).³⁴ Material produced by the first two methods has mainly been used in electrochemistry, but this contains large amounts of metal NPs and amorphous carbon, making the use of a clean-up procedure after growth mandatory.³⁵⁻³⁶ However, CNTs contain significant amount of metallic impurities, even after extensive purification processes,³⁷ and these clean-up procedures introduce considerable defects in the single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWNTs).³⁸ The electrochemical behavior of redox systems can be strongly affected by such impurities and defects, which are particularly problematic for fundamental studies of eletrocatalysis.³⁹ In contrast, CNTs grown using cCVD method have been shown to exhibit low defect density,⁴⁰ high crystallinity and are relatively free of metallic NPs.⁴¹

In principle, Ni(OH)₂ NP deposition can be driven electrochemically using two approaches: (i) the *direct approach*⁴²⁻⁴⁶ where Ni(OH)₂ is precipitated from highly supersaturated solutions by electrochemically generating high concentrations of OH⁻ at the electrode/electrolyte interface, in the presence of Ni²⁺; and: (ii) the *indirect approach*, whereby Ni NPs are first electrodeposited by direct reduction of Ni²⁺ and subsequently electrochemically converted to Ni(OH)₂ by potential cycling in a basic electrolyte.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ In this paper we compare the two different procedures for Ni(OH)₂ NP deposition on SWNT electrodes in terms of both the resulting crystalline phase

of the Ni(OH)₂ and electrocatalytic performance towards the EtOH oxidation reaction (EOR) and MeOH oxidation reaction (MOR).

The Ni(OH)₂/SWNTs are electrochemically interrogated using the microcapillary electrochemical method (MCEM),²⁸ which allows multiple electrochemical measurements to be made in different locations on the same electrode, thereby allowing a range of key parameters to be changed and investigated, without the need to make new electrodes and with minimal processing of the SWNTs. Although, SWNTs are attracting considerable attention as a support for electrocatalytic materials,^{22, 49-50} in the vast majority of cases, SWNT/NP composites are assessed by immobilizing, or producing, these structures on an electrode (typically glassy carbon)^{49, 51-52} which has its own intrinsic electroactivity. In contrast, our approach examines the behavior of the SWNT/NP materials alone and thus circumvents any problems and contributions that may arise from the need to use a further electrode support.

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

SWNT Network Growth and Electrode Preparation: High density (HD) SWNT networks were used to provide a relatively large surface area for NP electrodeposition. The HD SWNT networks were grown on 2 cm × 2 cm insulating Si/SiO₂ substrates (IDB Technologies Ltd., n-type, 525 μm thickness with 300 nm of thermally grown SiO₂ on both sides), using cCVD, with cobalt (Co)⁵³ NPs as the catalyst and EtOH as a carbon source.⁵⁴ A side contact to the SWNT networks (for subsequent electrochemical measurements) was made by evaporating Cr (3 nm)/Au (60 nm) through a shadow mask using a Moorfields MiniLab deposition system (Moorfield Associates).

Electrodeposition of Ni(OH)₂ on SWNT Network Electrodes: All aqueous solutions were prepared using high purity Milli-Q reagent water (Millipore Corp.) with a resistivity of 18.2 MΩ cm at 25 °C. 10 mM nickel nitrate (Ni(NO₃)₂, Aldrich, 99.999%) and 10 mM nickel sulphate (NiSO₄, Aldrich, 99%) solutions were used for the electrodeposition of Ni(OH)₂ NPs for the direct and indirect approach, respectively, using a droplet method (Figure 1a).⁵⁵ Electrochemical measurements were carried out in a 3-electrode setup, with the SWNT network acting as the working electrode. Electrical contact to the Au band side contact was made via a pin. A drop of electrolyte solution (~15 μL, 4 mm diameter) was placed on the electrode surface, fairly close to the gold band but without making contact (Figure 1a). A platinum wire was used as a counter electrode (CE). On the timescale of electrodeposition procedure (5 seconds) there is little chance of any CE products reaching the working electrode (which is located at least 1 mm away from the end of the CE). AgCl-coated Ag wire acted as a quasi-reference electrode (QRCE), against which all potentials are quoted. This QRCE was found to be sufficiently stable under the experimental conditions and timescale.⁵⁶⁻⁵⁷ Both the Pt CE and AgCl-coated Ag wire QRCE were positioned within the droplet of solution to complete the circuit.

For the direct approach, precipitation of Ni(OH)₂ on the SWNT network electrode occurred by driving the electroreduction of nitrate (from dissolved Ni(NO₃)₂) at the SWNT electrode to form OH⁻ locally (equation 1).



This concept is illustrated schematically in Figure 1b.⁵⁸ To produce NPs it was necessary to produce a high concentration of OH⁻, leading to a highly supersaturated solution. This was achieved by driving the reduction process (1) at a negative driving potential of -1.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, for 5 s. From the resulting current-time transient it is possible to determine the OH⁻

concentration near the electrode surface;¹² \sim mM, as described in Electronic Supporting Information (ESI), Section 1.

For the indirect approach, Ni metal NPs were first electrodeposited by applying a sufficiently negative reduction potential of -1.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl, for 5 s, in NiSO₄ solution, followed by oxidative potential cycling (+0.1 V to +0.5 V at 5 mV s⁻¹ for 10 cycles) in 0.1 M KOH (Aldrich).

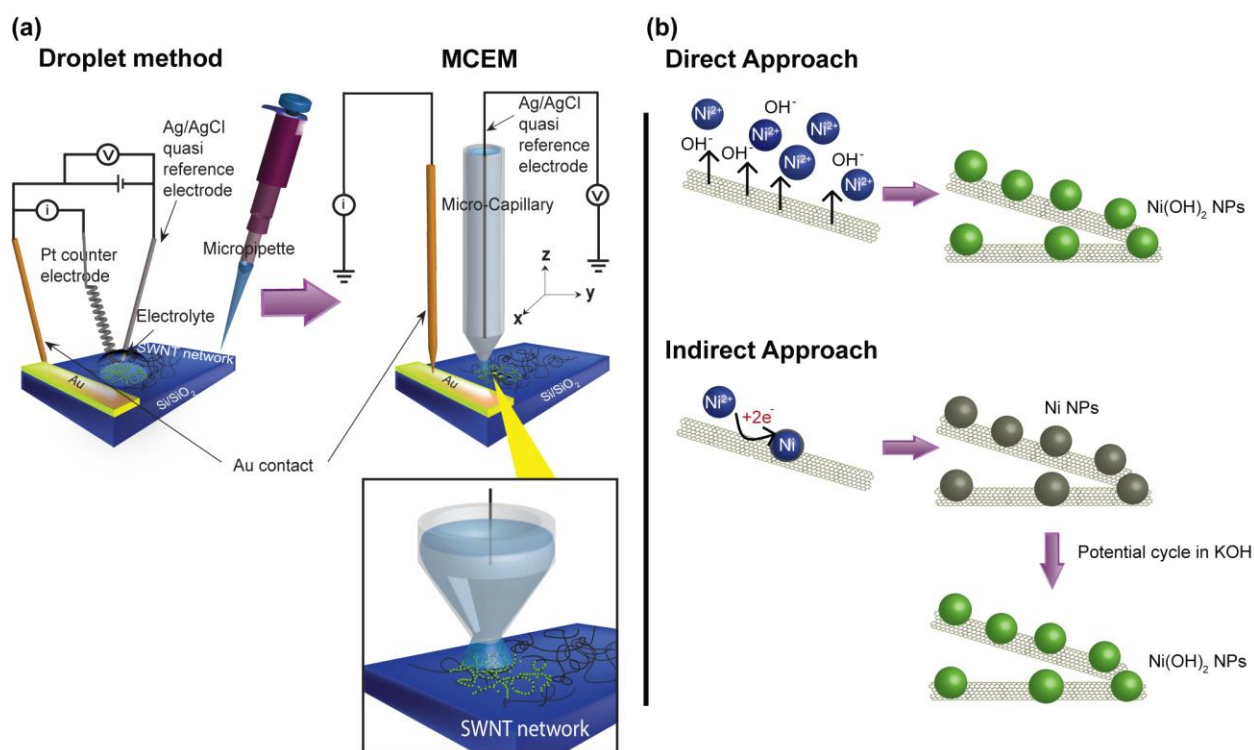


Figure 1. Experimental set-up for (a) the electrodeposition of NPs using the droplet method and microscopic electrocatalytic measurements using the MCEM. (b) Illustration showing Ni(OH)₂ NPs formation on a SWNT network electrode by both the direct (top) and indirect (bottom) approach.

Material characterization: Bare and functionalized SWNT networks were characterized using both field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM: Zeiss Supra 55-VP, 1 kV

acceleration voltage) and atomic force microscopy (AFM: tapping mode, Bruker-Nano Enviroscope). Micro-Raman spectra were recorded using a Renishaw inVia Raman microscope (514.5 nm Ar laser, 10 mW). For these techniques, three measurements ($n = 3$) were recorded per substrate. For high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) sample preparation, Ni(OH)₂ NPs were mechanically scratched from the growth substrate using a blade and dispersed in absolute EtOH (Fisher Scientific) solution. The suspension underwent sonication for 4 minutes and centrifugation for 15 minutes (Eppendorf, 10 000 rpm) to cause particle sedimentation. A drop of solution (3 μ L), containing the sedimented particles, was then placed onto a lacey carbon TEM grid (Agar Scientific) and left until the EtOH had evaporated. HR-TEM was conducted ($n = 3$) using a JEM 2100 TEM (JEOL, LaB₆ filament, operated at 200 kV) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) technique.

Electrocatalytic Measurements: 0.5 M MeOH (VWR, 99%) and 0.5 M EtOH (Fisher, 99.5%) were used for MOR and EOR, respectively, in 0.1 M KOH. All chemicals were used as received. Electrochemical measurements were performed using the MCEM, a localized electrochemical technique which has been described in detail previously.^{28, 59} The electrochemical cell consisted of a borosilicate glass capillary (1.2 mm outer diameter, 0.69 mm internal diameter, Harvard Apparatus Ltd.), pulled to a sharp tip using a laser pipet puller (P-2000, Sutter Instrument Co.). The end was polished to reveal an aperture in the range 60 – 62 μ m (measured using optical microscopy for each capillary) and rendered hydrophobic on the outer walls through immersion in dichlorodimethylsilane (Fisher, $\geq 99\%$) for 90 s, with high purity Ar gas flowing through the capillary to prevent any internal silanization. The capillary was filled with the solution of interest and a Ag/AgCl wire as QRCE was inserted. The SWNT-Ni(OH)₂ substrate was connected as the

working electrode and the capillary was manually lowered towards the electrode using an *x-y-z* micropositioner (Newport 433 series), with the aid of a camera (PixelINK PL-B776U). A quick tap was applied to the micropositioner, once the capillary was close to the sample surface, so that an electrolyte meniscus formed on the SWNT network, without the capillary itself making contact with the electrode surface. Electrochemical measurements were made in a 2-electrode arrangement (due to the small currents, < 120 nA), for which the use of a QRCE gives adequate stability,⁶⁰⁻⁶¹ using a potentiostat (CH Instruments, Austin, TX; model 730A).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ni(OH)₂ Formation on SWNT Network Electrodes. Typical FE-SEM and AFM images shown in Figures 2a and 2b, respectively, are of a representative pristine (bare) HD SWNT network with a measured SWNT density $\gg 10 \mu\text{m}$ length of SWNT per μm^{-2} . This density is more than sufficient to ensure that the SWNT network is above the metallic percolation threshold ($1.4 - 2.4 \mu\text{m}_{\text{SWNT}} \mu\text{m}^{-2}$; based on typical SWNTs lengths of $7 - 12 \mu\text{m}$).⁶² Figure 2c shows a representative micro-Raman spectrum of a pristine HD SWNT network. The peaks marked with an (*) at 303 cm^{-1} , 521 cm^{-1} and 950 cm^{-1} originate from the Si/SiO₂ substrate which are used as a reference against which other peak intensities could be compared. The presence of radial breathing modes (RBM) between 100 and 350 cm^{-1} are clearly observed, confirming the presence of SWNTs. Moreover, the *G*-peak (1585 cm^{-1} , sp^2 graphitic carbon) was *ca.* 30 times the intensity of the *D*-peak (1350 cm^{-1}), indicating that the networks are of a high quality. The small *D*-peak could arise from defect sites or a small amount of amorphous carbon.

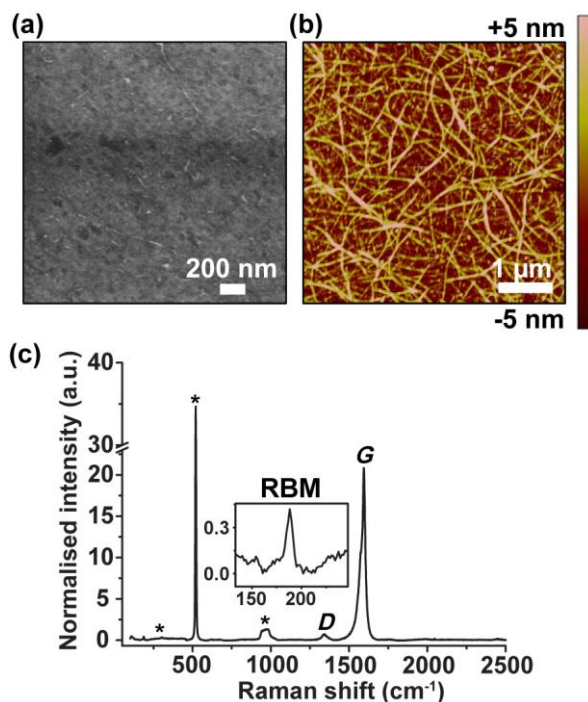


Figure 2. Typical (a) FE-SEM and (b) AFM images of a HD SWNT network. (c) Corresponding micro-Raman spectrum.

For the direct approach, $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ NPs can be seen to precipitate uniformly on the multiply interconnected HD SWNT networks, as shown in the FE-SEM (Figure 3a) and AFM (Figure 3b) images, respectively. It is estimated (semi-quantitatively), as described in detail in **ESI Section 1**, that $> 10^{-3}$ M concentrations of OH^- are generated close to the electrode, resulting in very high relative saturation ratios of $10^8 - 10^9$ with respect to $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$, thus promoting high nucleation rates and the formation of $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ NPs.¹² Cross-sectional AFM height analysis (Figure 3c) reveals NP heights in the range 3 – 12 nm. The EDS data in Figure S2a and S2b, **ESI Section 1**, show no Pt signal proving that the $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ deposition is not related to a Pt wire used as a CE.

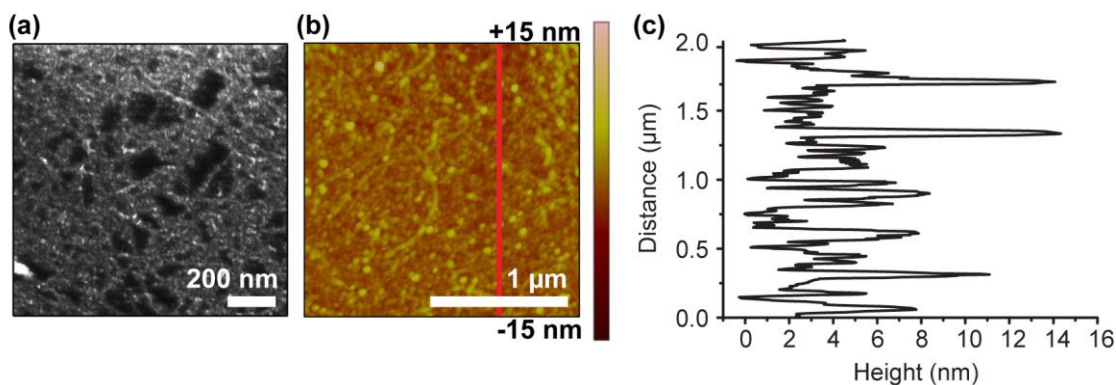


Figure 3. Typical (a) FE-SEM and (b) AFM images of a HD SWNT network electrode modified with Ni(OH)_2 (deposition parameters 5 s at -1.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl in 10 mM $\text{Ni(NO}_3)_2$ solution). (c) AFM cross sectional height analysis (red line in b) of the NPs.

For the indirect approach, typical FE-SEM and higher resolution AFM images of the SWNT electrode surface recorded after Ni electrodeposition, but prior to electrochemical cycling in basic electrolyte are shown in Figures 4(ai) and 4(bi) respectively. The Ni NPs were widely distributed over the HD SWNTs. Due to the reduced lattice spacing and more dense nature of the native metal, Ni NPs provide better contrast against the SWNTs in FE-SEM than the Ni(OH)_2 NPs (Figure 3a).⁶³ As determined by AFM, Ni NPs of heights in the range 3 – 25 nm were formed during the initial electrodeposition process. The Ni NPs were then converted to Ni(OH)_2 by potential cycling, in 0.1 M KOH, sweeping from +0.1 V to +0.5 V at a potential scan rate of 5 mV s^{-1} , as shown in Figure S1c, **ESI Section 1**. The current decreased significantly for the first seven cycles as a result of the transformation of metal Ni to Ni(OH)_2 , and remained relatively stable with further cycles.⁶⁴ Figures 4(a,b) show typical FE-SEM and AFM images of the surface after (ii) 1 and (iii) 10 cycles. NPs of 6 – 75 nm and 25 – 80 nm in height were found after 1 and 10 cycles, respectively, clearly showing the size of the NPs increases with increasing cycle number (Figure 4c). However, it is difficult to determine the actual size of the NPs, as there is

evidence of NP agglomeration on the SWNTs. Hence, HR-TEM (*vide infra*) was carried out to provide a more detailed analysis of the NPs formed.

Note that further voltammetric cycling resulted in even larger NPs, as shown in Figure 4(a, b iv) where the Ni NPs were subjected to 50 voltammetric cycles in 0.1 M KOH. Particle heights of 40 – 130 nm were determined using AFM cross sectional analysis. These data indicate that an electrochemically-induced Ostwald-ripening or agglomeration process likely operates during potential cycling that has to be controlled to avoid particles becoming too large. For electrocatalytic studies, samples with smaller NPs were of interest (due to enhanced mass action), i.e. those formed after 10 cycles (*vide infra*).

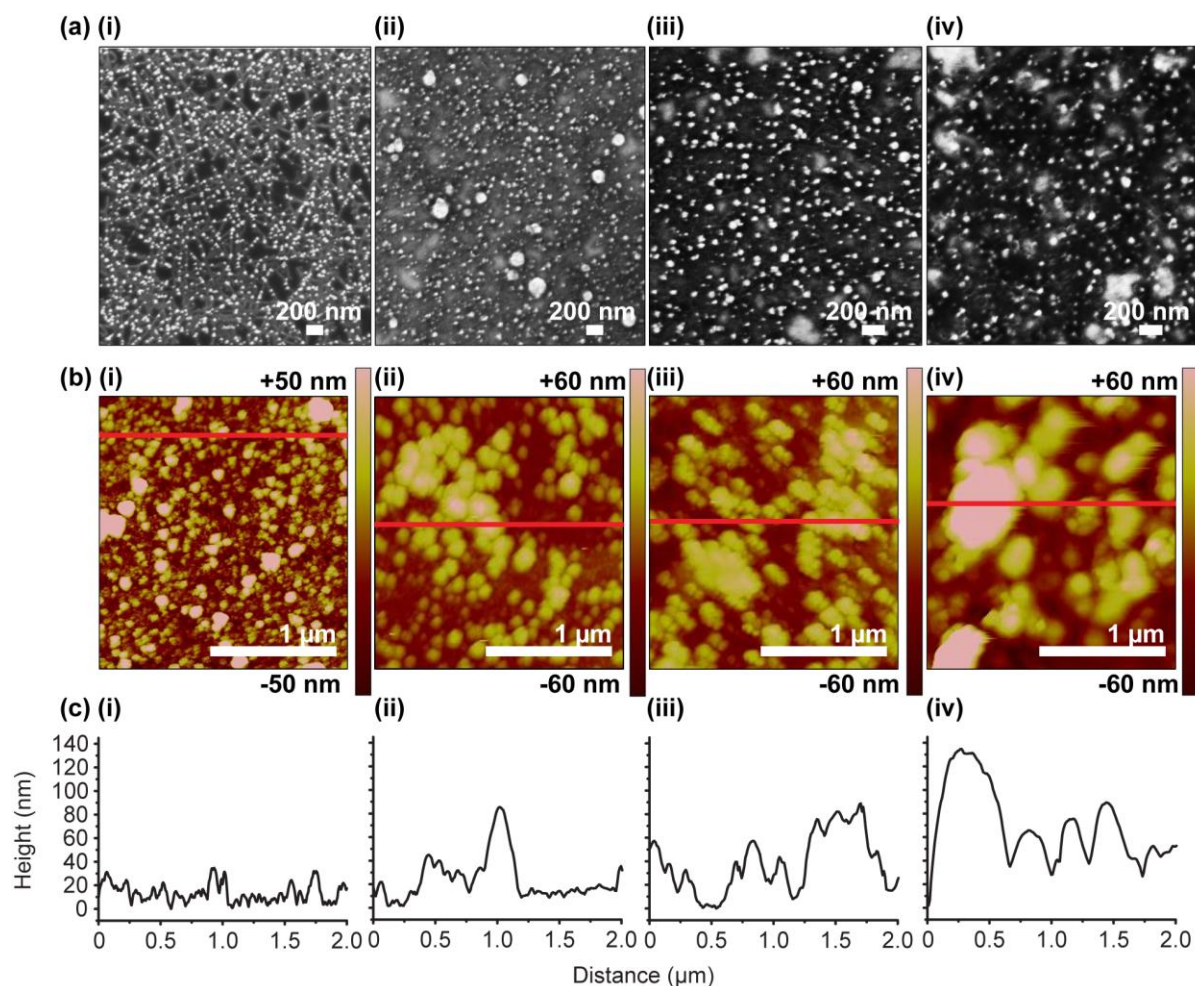


Figure 4. Typical (a) FE-SEM and (b) AFM images of HD SWNT network electrode with Ni NPs (formed by electrodeposition at -1.5 V for 5 s in 10 mM NiSO₄ solution) (i) before and after (ii) 1 cycle, (iii) 10 cycles and (iv) 50 cycles in 0.1 M KOH. (c) Corresponding height cross sections of the NPs.

HR-TEM analysis of the Ni(OH)₂ NPs is shown in Figures 5a-c (direct approach) and Figures 5d-f (indirect approach, 10 cycles). The preparation procedure for HR-TEM analysis resulted in significant NP agglomeration (as shown in Figures 5a,d) but had the advantage that it was possible to focus on individual particles within the agglomerate to provide more information on individual NP size. For the direct approach, HR-TEM shows the smallest crystallites of Ni(OH)₂ were around 5 nm in diameter, whilst the typical size of Ni(OH)₂ NPs was 10 nm, as shown in Figures 5a-b, in agreement with the AFM data (Figure 3b,c). For the indirect approach, HR-TEM shows the smallest crystallites were *ca.* 3 nm in diameter, with a typical size of 5 nm observed, as shown in Figures 5d-e, indicating that the larger sized NPs observed by AFM analysis (Figures 4b, c (ii-iv)) are due to the agglomeration of smaller NPs.

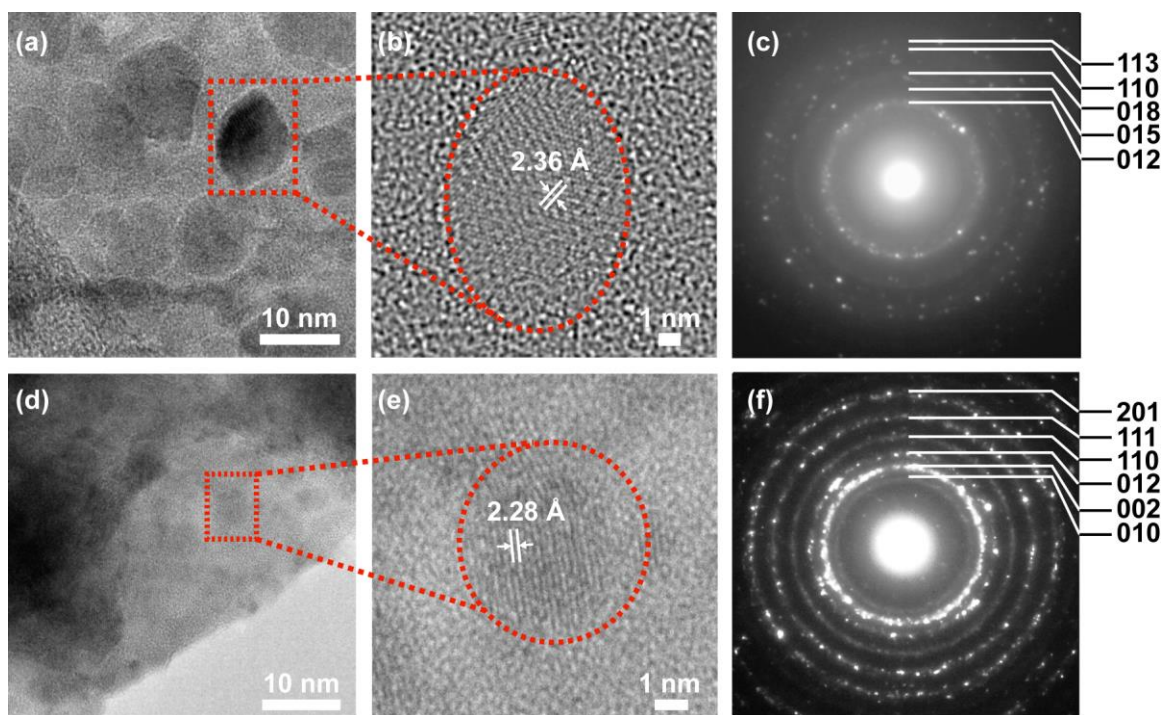


Figure 5. Typical (a, d) HR-TEM images and (c, f) SAED patterns of modified HD SWNT network electrode with Ni(OH)₂ NPs by the (a-c) direct and (d-f) indirect approaches.

SAED was performed on NP agglomerates that were in the holes of the supporting lacey carbon, in order to avoid carbon background interference in the TEM analysis. SAED of Ni(OH)₂ produced by the direct method indicated the formation of α -phase Ni(OH)₂ (Figure 5c; Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS) 380715), whilst β -phase Ni(OH)₂ (Figure 5f; JCPDS 140117) was observed for the indirect method. Figure 6a and b show a schematic diagram representing the α and β phases of Ni(OH)₂, respectively.⁶⁵ Figure 6b clearly shows that the β phase (inter-sheet (001) distance, $c_0 = 4.60 \text{ \AA}$) adopts a more close packed (dehydrated) structure compared to the more disordered ($c_0 = 7.60 \text{ \AA}$) hydrated α phase (Figure 6a).⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷ For the direct approach, it is likely that the rapid precipitation process in the presence of Ni²⁺ and supersaturated concentrations of OH⁻ (generated electrochemically) is responsible for α -phase formation, favoring the formation of disordered α -Ni(OH)₂ (kinetically-driven process).

For the indirect approach, as the initial electrodeposited metallic Ni has a face-centered cubic (close packed) structure,⁶⁸ electrochemically conversion of Ni NPs to β -Ni(OH)₂ appears to be favored as β -phase Ni(OH)₂ has a similar close-packed structure. Furthermore, the slow process using potential cycling is also likely to favor the formation of the thermodynamically stable β -phase Ni(OH)₂.⁶⁵

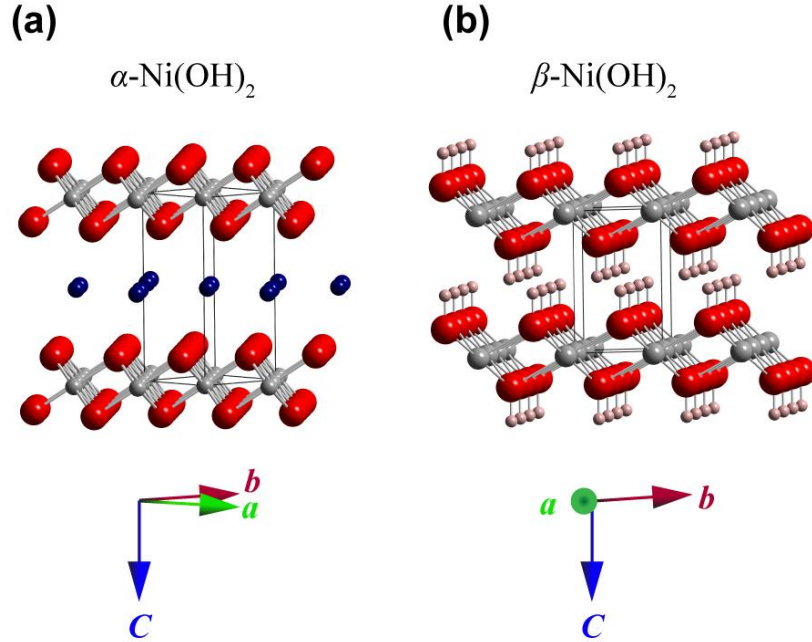


Figure 6. Schematic representation of the (a) α -Ni(OH)₂ phase (small grey spheres, Ni²⁺; large red spheres, OH⁻; medium size blue spheres, H₂O positions) and (b) β -Ni(OH)₂ phase (medium grey spheres, Ni²⁺; large red spheres, O²⁻; small pink spheres, H⁺). In the first structure, H⁺ is omitted for clarity.⁶⁵

Figures 5b and e show the HR-TEM of a selected NP ($n = 3$) and the corresponding SAED images (Figures 5c and f); for an α -Ni(OH)₂ NP (b,c) and β -phase Ni(OH)₂ NP (e,f). Note the SAED sample size is ~ 675 nm, and therefore the area around the NP is also sampled. From the HR-TEM images, lattice fringes indicate d spacings of 2.36 Å for the α -Ni(OH)₂ NP and 2.28 Å for the β -Ni(OH)₂ NP. These d spacings correspond to the (015) and (002) planes, identified

using SAED, of the α and β phase Ni(OH)_2 NP, respectively, as provided by Figure 5c,f and the JCPDS.

MOR and EOR on Ni(OH)_2 NP Modified SWNT Network Electrodes

CVs were first recorded in the potential range +0.1 V to +0.55 V, on both the α and β phase Ni(OH)_2 modified SWNT electrodes (prepared by the direct and indirect approach, respectively) by cycling in 0.1 M KOH at 5 mV s⁻¹ to estimate the amount of electroactive Ni(OH)_2 , as shown in Figure 7. For both cases, the charge associated with Q_{ox} (oxidation of Ni(OH)_2 ; shaded area under the anodic peaks in Figure 7) is greater than the charge associated with Q_{red} (reduction of NiOOH), with $Q_{\text{ox}}/Q_{\text{red}}$ values of 1.4 and 2.5 determined for the α -phase and β -phase Ni(OH)_2 NPs respectively. This is likely to be due to the fact that highly electrocatalytic NiOOH can also oxidize adsorbed OH^- , leading to the evolution of O_2 and reduction of NiOOH back to Ni(OH)_2 . This means there are less NiOOH sites available for electrochemical reduction on the return scan.⁶⁹ The effect, however, is small, and we showed in our previous work¹² on that the anodic charge correlated well with the particle size and number, assuming volumetric conversion of Ni(OH)_2 .

The amount of electroactive Ni(OH)_2 (Γ /mol cm⁻²) is thus reasonably given by:

$$\Gamma = \frac{Q_{\text{ox}}}{nFA} \quad (2)$$

where n is the number of electrons ($n = 1$), F is the Faraday constant and A is the area of the capillary opening. Given Q_{ox} values of 24.5 nC and 7.4 nC for the α -phase and β -phase Ni(OH)_2 respectively, Γ values of 9 ± 1 nmol cm⁻² and 3 ± 1 nmol cm⁻² were obtained. Given the slight enhancement of the charge on the forward sweep compared to the reverse sweep, these are

maximum values for the amount of electrodeposited Ni(OH)_2 , and hence the specific activity values that follow are minimum values.

For $\alpha\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$ oxidation, the oxidation peak lies 60 mV less positive than that for $\beta\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$ oxidation. Upon oxidation the $\alpha\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$ transforms to $\gamma\text{-NiOOH}$,⁷⁰ the latter has a higher oxidation state (+3.5)⁷¹ and nearly identical c_o parameter to $\alpha\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$.⁷² In contrast, $\beta\text{-Ni(OH)}_2$ transforms to $\beta\text{-NiOOH}$ (+3 oxidation state), which only slowly transforms to $\gamma\text{-NiOOH}$ (with a resulting volume change) upon prolonged (repeated) cycling.¹¹ In order to maintain charge neutrality during redox cycling, it is important that ions/solvent molecules can penetrate the layered Ni(OH)_2 structure (Figure 6); thus, as ion/solvent transfer can occur more freely in the disordered $\alpha\text{-Ni(OH)}_2/\gamma\text{-NiOOH}$ phase structures than in the corresponding β -phase structures,⁷³ this could be a likely cause of the observed differences in the CV responses in Figure 7.

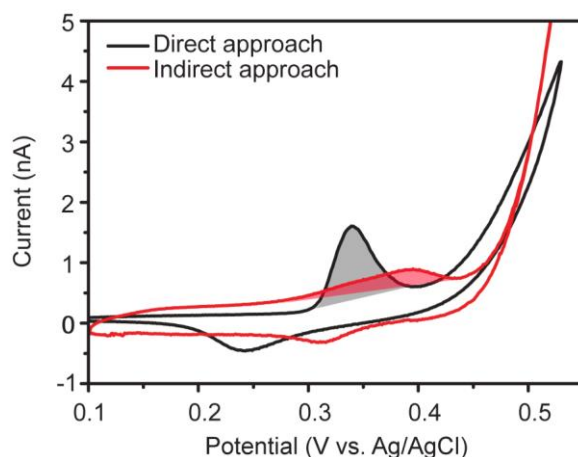


Figure 7. Typical CVs recorded using the MCEM with a capillary of 60 μm diameter in 0.1 M KOH, using a Ni(OH)_2 modified SWNT network electrode by the direct and indirect approaches. The potential scan rate is 5 mV s^{-1} .

The two different Ni(OH)₂ structures were investigated for their electrocatalytic response towards the MOR and EOR. CV measurements, at a potential scan rate of 5 mV s⁻¹, over the potential range +0.1 V to +0.55 V, were carried out in 0.5 M MeOH and 0.5 M EtOH, respectively in 0.1 M KOH. For comparison to literature values, currents were normalized by the mass of electroactive Ni(OH)₂ electrodeposited on the SWNT network electrode, to provide a value for specific activity (current / mass = A g_{Ni(OH)₂}⁻¹):

$$\text{specific activity} = \frac{i n F}{Q_{\text{ox}} M_{\text{Ni(OH)}_2}} \quad (3)$$

where i is the current and $M_{\text{Ni(OH)}_2}$ is the molar mass of Ni(OH)₂. The calculated masses of electroactive material were 23.6 pg and 7.0 pg for α -Ni(OH)₂ and β -Ni(OH)₂, respectively. Note that the MOR and EOR responses for pristine SWNT network electrodes were negligible, even when doubling the alcohol concentration to 1 M, as shown in Figures 8a (inset). These data indicate that a bare SWNT network electrode is ineffective towards the electrochemical oxidation of alcohols, within this potential range.

For α -Ni(OH)₂, the forward scans in Figures 8a-b show a small anodic peak current (1) at +0.28 V and +0.31 V, followed by the appearance of larger (2) current peaks at +0.41 V and +0.48 V in the presence of EtOH and MeOH, respectively. For the reverse scan a cathodic peak current is observed at +0.20 V, for both alcohols. Peak 1 is the characteristic signal for the oxidation of Ni(OH)₂ to NiOOH. The second larger current peak is due to the oxidation of the alcohol, catalyzed by NiOOH, occurring at +0.3 V and +0.33 V for EtOH and MeOH, respectively. Compared to cycling in 0.1 M KOH alone, Figure 8a shows *ca.* 40 times increase in the peak current density for the EOR, which equates to a specific activity of ~3.7 kA g⁻¹ and *ca.* 30 times increase in the peak current density for the MOR, which is a specific activity of ~2.8 kA

g^{-1} (Figure 8b). These values are higher than recent reports using nanostructured catalysts on carbon supports, as shown in Table 1. The small peak observed on the back scan for both the EOR and MOR, is attributed to the reduction of adsorbed intermediates (carbonaceous species not fully oxidized in the forward scan).⁷⁴

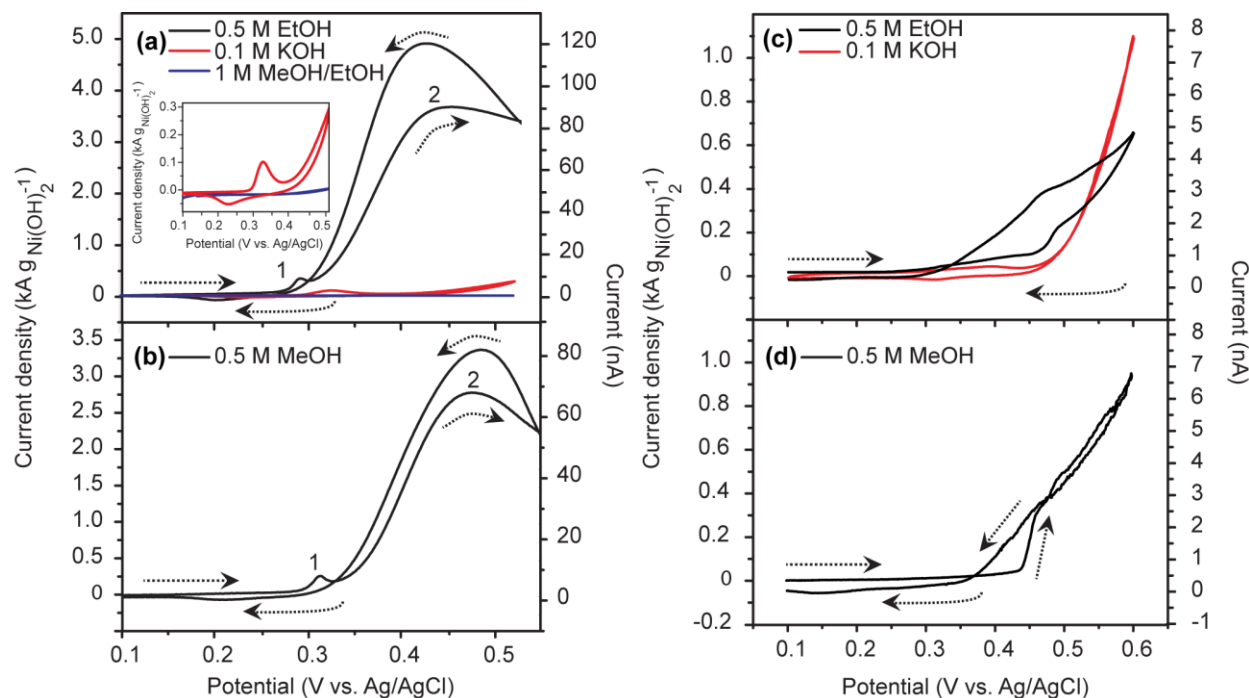


Figure 8. CVs at $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ NP-modified SWNT network electrodes using the (a, b) direct and (c, d) indirect approach in a solution of 0.1 M KOH (red) with (a, c) 0.5 M EtOH and (b, d) 0.5 M MeOH (black). Inset: Magnification of the CVs of bare SWNT network electrode (blue) in 0.1 M KOH solution containing 1 M EtOH + 1 M MeOH and $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2/\text{SWNT}$ in 0.1 M KOH (red). The potential scan rate was 5 mV s^{-1} .

For $\beta\text{-Ni}(\text{OH})_2$, Figures 8c-d show the CVs recorded from +0.1 V to +0.60 V in the absence (0.1 M KOH only) and presence of 0.5 M EtOH (Figure 8c) and MeOH (Figure 8d). In contrast to the data in Figure 8a, it is not possible to differentiate between oxidation of the $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ and oxidation of the alcohol, instead one single oxidation wave is seen, which itself is not clearly defined. Therefore, it is difficult to define precisely an onset potential for AOR,

although the current can be seen to begin increasing from a \sim zero baseline *ca.* +0.34 V and +0.37 V in the presence of EtOH and MeOH, respectively. The CV characteristic is most likely due to the sluggish kinetics of the β -Ni(OH)₂ to β -NiOOH conversion and the oxidation of the alcohol. By taking the current at +0.47 V for the EOR and +0.45 V for the MOR, SA values of \sim 0.4 kA g⁻¹ and \sim 0.3 kA g⁻¹ are estimated for the EOR and MOR, respectively. These values are *ca.* 9 times smaller than for the NPs obtained by the direct approach. Cycling β -Ni(OH)₂ NPs reduces the catalytic efficiency even further, as shown by the CV in Figure S3, **ESI Section 2**, for a β -Ni(OH)₂/SWNT in 0.5 M EtOH, with the electrode prepared by 50, rather than 10 potential cycles of electrodeposited Ni NPs in 0.1 M KOH (Figure 4vi).

Overall, it is apparent that α -Ni(OH)₂ produced by the direct approach exhibits faster kinetics and superior electrocatalytic (oxidizing) properties, compared to β -Ni(OH)₂ produced by the indirect approach. The improved performance of the α -phase over the β -phase could be due to several factors including: (i) the more disordered structure of α -Ni(OH)₂/ γ -NiOOH which enables more facile ion-solvent intercalation, to maintain charge neutrality during electrocatalysis;⁷⁵ (ii) γ -NiOOH has a higher oxidation state than β -NiOOH and, in principle, could act as a more effective electro-oxidation catalyst.⁷⁰⁻⁷²

Table 1. Nanostructured catalysts for MOR and EOR.

Electrode modification	Electrolyte, Scan rate	Maximum catalytic current (A g _{Ni(OH)2} ⁻¹)		Ref.
		MeOH	EtOH	
Pt-Ru-Ni-P/Carbon supported	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ and 0.5 M CH ₃ OH, 50 mV s ⁻¹	459	-	⁷⁶

Pt-TiO ₂ /Graphene composites	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ and 1 M CH ₃ OH, 100 mV s ⁻¹	1354	-	⁷⁷
Pt-Ag/Glassy carbon electrode	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ and 1 M CH ₃ OH, 50 mV s ⁻¹	400	-	⁷⁸
Pt-Ru/Carbon supported	0.1 M HClO ₄ and 0.5 M CH ₃ OH	300	-	⁷⁹
Pd-Ag/Graphene oxide	1 M KOH and 1 M CH ₃ OH, 1 M CH ₂ CH ₃ OH, 50 mV s ⁻¹	600	1500	⁸⁰
Cu-Pt-Pd/Carbon supported	0.5 M H ₂ SO ₄ and 1 M CH ₃ OH, 1 M CH ₂ CH ₃ OH, 50 mV s ⁻¹	700	1200	⁸¹
Pd-Cu-Sn/CNTs	1 M KOH and 0.5 M CH ₃ OH, 0.5 M CH ₂ CH ₃ OH, 50 mV s ⁻¹	396	873	⁸²
Ni(OH) ₂ /Boron-doped diamond	0.1 M KOH and 0.5 M CH ₃ OH, 0.5 M CH ₂ CH ₃ OH, 5 mV s ⁻¹	990	1010	¹²
Ni(OH) ₂ /HD SWNT	0.1 M KOH and 0.5 M CH ₃ OH, 0.5 M CH ₂ CH ₃ OH, 5 mV s ⁻¹	2800	3700	This work

CONCLUSIONS

The studies herein have revealed detailed information on the structure and electrocatalytic activity of Ni(OH)₂ NPs produced by two different electrochemical approaches on HD SWNTs. For the direct approach, Ni(OH)₂ NPs were formed by electro-generating relatively high concentrations of OH⁻ at the electrode surface in the presence of Ni²⁺. For the

indirect approach, Ni NPs were first electrodeposited on the SWNTs and then electrochemically transformed to Ni(OH)_2 by potential cycling in alkaline media.

NP distribution was investigated using FE-SEM, whilst AFM was employed to provide quantitative information on NP size. AFM revealed individual NPs for the direct approach, of size in the range 3 – 12 nm. For the indirect approach, AFM indicated that NP aggregation was a potential problem, revealing a wide size distribution of 25 – 80 nm in the height of nanostructures. HR-TEM was used to provide higher resolution information on the NP deposits. This revealed typical NP crystallites of sizes 10 nm and 5 nm for the direct and indirect approaches, respectively. The latter data supported the idea that the larger nanostructured material, as observed by AFM, was produced by the aggregation of smaller NPs.

A key part of our study was to determine the crystallography of individual NPs using SAED in the HR-TEM. It was possible to assign NPs formed by direct deposition to the disordered (hydrated) α -phase and those formed via indirect deposition to the ordered (dehydrated) β -phase. The different phases formed by these methods can be rationalized because in the direct approach extremely high supersaturations are generated resulted in the immediate precipitation of the kinetically favored α -phase of Ni(OH)_2 . In contrast, the potential cycling approach involves a slow conversion of Ni to Ni(OH)_2 , leading to the more thermodynamically favored β -phase of Ni(OH)_2 .

α - Ni(OH)_2 NPs formed via the direct approach, performed remarkably well in terms of the high specific activities for the MOR ($\sim 2.8 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$) and EOR ($\sim 3.7 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$), for 0.5 M of alcohol, compared to β - Ni(OH)_2 NPs for the MOR ($\sim 0.3 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$) and EOR ($\sim 0.4 \text{ kA g}^{-1}$) respectively. This difference was mainly attributed to the more disordered nature of α - Ni(OH)_2 / γ - NiOOH , compared to β - Ni(OH)_2 / β - NiOOH , leading to more ready ion-solvent intercalation

during electrocatalysis in the former case. Furthermore, γ -NiOOH has a higher oxidation state than β -NiOOH which could make it more effective as a catalyst for electro-oxidation .

Finally, it is important to highlight the MCEM as approach to quickly screen electrocatalysts and that our studies have allowed the study of SWNT-Ni(OH)₂ nanostructured electrodes without any need for an additional support electrode so that the intrinsic activity of this novel composite is investigated without complications from a substrate electrode.

Supporting Information. Section S1. Ni(OH)₂ NPs production via the direct and indirect approach. Section S2. EOR on β -Ni(OH)₂ NPs modified SWNT network electrodes.

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